278 of trust. Every time they take a caravan down south, they purchase [439] many drugs, either for their personal use or to resell in their country or at In-Salah.

164 There are not many diseases in the Ahaggar. The country is relatively healthy because of its very dry climate /261/ and the bracing action of the sun, which at the same time destroys microbic germs. Moreover, this is very fortunate, for with the small amount of hygiene practiced by the Tuareg it would be impossible to fight disease. It may also be true that this absence of hygiene stems from the fact that the Tuareg have not had to see the necessity of it.

[165 731] The Ahaggar people die of old age or of war wounds. Of course, there are sometimes epidemics capable of doing damage, but they are rare because of the isolation of the camps. The great distances which separate one from the other are a natural defense against mass contagions. These epidemics always come through the medium [361] of the caravaneers or the people who return from the Sudan, where they have stayed among sedentary people. We may mention smallpox, very common in the Sudan, which sometimes works great ravages in the tribes. Typhus, spread by lice, may decimate a whole tribe in a few days, and it is not uncommon among the Tuareg. But these two diseases are the exception when they are reported in [151] the Ahaggar. When a man returning from the Sudan is stricken with one of them, his case is reported by messengers long before his arrival, and the sick man is systematically isolated.

753 The Tuareg under the circumstances recognize the state of contagion, but they do not see the causes of disease. According to [771] them, it is caused by the action of bad genii. As good Moslems, they pretend not to believe in these genii, but in reality most of the talismans they wear on their persons are intended to protect them from these. To obtain them, they go to the marabouts or to men [156] with a reputation for their knowledge of the occult sciences; these sorcerers are known as amekellé́ou.

844 the child is in a good position; she also rolls her on the ground to put the child in place if need be, but she never makes a vaginal exploration.

845 If the birth does not go normally, the midwife may ask the [75] marabout's help. The latter comes and stands outside the tent, giving verbal advice but never intervening personally; he cannot go near the parturient woman.

844 To give birth the woman squats down on her knees and braces herself on the center stake of the tent. Generally /283/ the baby falls on a layer of fine sand which has been prepared for that purpose. The midwife immediately cuts the umbilical cord, washes the baby in warm water, and makes him cry by pinching him to make sure he is alive. Then the mother takes him, puts a bit of her milk in [85] his nostrils, stretches his nose so that it will be long and narrow, and presses his head between her hands to give it an elongated shape. [174] This custom is certainly a vestige of cranial deformation, which is no longer practiced among the Tuareg but which was formerly common among the Egyptians.

As soon as the father learns of the birth of the baby, he has a sheep butchered and sends it to the wife's camp. The sheep is meant 846 to feed her and the people who have assisted her. The woman is made to absorb a great deal of meat bouillon. Sometimes the new mother gets up two or three days after confinement.

851 The birth of a boy is welcomed with more joy than that of a girl. [842] In the first case, all the people, men and women, come to con- [82] gratulate the mother, but if it is a girl only the women come to see her. During this visit the women often put yellow ocher under [75] their eyes and around their mouths to keep away the bad genii which are always supposed to prowl around in tents where a newborn baby has just arrived.

846 On the seventh day after the birth, the woman returns to her husband's camp, accompanied by the women of her family and her brothers, if she has any. The father then sees his child for the first time.

847 under these circumstances, she usually goes to visit a relative and tries to hide her pregnancy. No one is taken in, but nobody says
[754] anything. She goes to see a marabout who, for a rather high price, makes a few mysterious signs before the sinner, writes a few words in Arabic on a small board, washes the writing, and gathers the water in a gourd for the woman to drink. In case these practices are successful (?), a second sum identical to the first one is paid.
[278] If not, the woman tries several mixtures, generally with a base of adjerdjir (Cassia abavata), and in case the results are still negative, the baby is simply strangled when it comes into the world. Al-
[797] though these mores are still more or less in force, they seem some-
848 what reduced by Islamization, and unnatural mothers are sometimes punished severely.

174 The alral seems to have existed in ancient North African Libyan tribes. Herodotus mentioned the community of women among the Nasamonians, and the ahal is, in fact, only a derived and evolved form of it, if one could call it evolved.

582 Marriage. -- With the existence of such easy mores, it is understandable that young men and women do not care to marry early. Women rarely marry before the age of twenty, and men, before thirty.

584 Although the girl is free with her body, as we have seen, she still needs her father's authorization to marry. On the other hand,
[593] however, it is rare for a husband to be imposed on her or for her to be married before puberty, as is the custom among the Arabs.

/291/ Mates are chosen in the lovers' meetings which form a sort of trial marriage. The suitor must ask the young girl's father through one of his parents or through a religious person if there is one in the region.

[184] Among the Ihaggaren everyone is informed of the suit, but in Aïr this is not the case; there the mother and the family of
[587] the girl are informed only when everything is arranged. If the woman has already been married, her father's permission is no longer necessary.